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III. PHILANTHROPY, CHARITIES AND SOCIAL PROBLEMS.

School Gardens in Europe.—The special consular report on the subject of school gardens in Europe issued from the Bureau of Foreign Commerce of the Department of State as Part II of Volume XX, is an exceedingly good illustration of the weakness of this method of obtaining information. The instruction from the department addressed to certain consular officers of the United States on June 8, 1899, was as follows:

GENTLEMEN:—You will please prepare a report upon the founding, progress and practical working of school gardens in your respective districts. Sketches and photographs of subjects appropriate for pictorial illustration covering classes actually engaged in collecting or transplanting specimens; groups of children at garden, dairy, or kitchen work; schoolroom experiments in plant growth, etc., will add materially to the value of your replies.

The reports will be published in the consular reports.

I am, gentlemen, your obedient servant,

THOMAS W. CRIDLER,
Third Assistant Secretary.

There are few teachers who would not be somewhat puzzled by this instruction, and the consuls deserve credit for having interpreted it broadly. Replies include information regarding kindergartens, day nurseries, primary schools, horticultural schools, practical schools of agriculture, teachers' seminaries (provided a plot of ground is attached in which the teacher is expected to cultivate flowers and vegetables), commercial schools (provided the recreation grounds are supplied with trees), technical schools (provided there is a botanical garden attached), ordinary gymnasia, annual conventions of the National German Agricultural Society, and even a National Agronomical Institute.

It appears from a modest paragraph which concludes the statement of the vice-consul general resident at Frankfort that "the Prussian administration of education has no knowledge of any such schools." Here the matter might conceivably have been allowed to rest since the above mentioned department is reasonably well informed in regard to the educational developments in that kingdom. The consular districts of Hamburg, Hanover, Stuttgart, Cologne and a few other cities are similarly barren of school gardens.

The Consul General at Berlin, however, has discovered that the school garden as an educational institution is by no means the embodiment of a new idea. Locke wrote on the subject more than two hundred years ago and in the last century the proposal to establish school gardens was regarded with such favor that it is probable that

the plan would have been adopted throughout Germany had the wars of the French Republic and Empire not checked educational progress. In spite of the ignorance of the Prussian department the Consul General finds a few school gardens in Prussia but concludes that on the whole the movement to extend this branch of education cannot be said to have attained an importance at all proportionate with the high and rapid growth of German education in other branches of study. In Sweden, Austria, France and Switzerland, however, which countries lie beyond the boundaries of his immediate consular district, the writer discovers several thousand school gardens.

That the subject is one which suggests conditions other than what appear upon the surface is obvious from the following statements:

"Agriculture is at best a precarious pursuit in Germany, where land is costly, exhausted by centuries of cultivation, and dependent for productiveness upon expensive and constant manuring. Seasons are uncertain, and every agricultural product except fresh vegetables is exposed to the competition of products imported from countries where the conditions of growth are more favorable than here. For these reasons, the educational energy of this country has been turned into the branches of study that will give the people higher efficiency in manufacture and commerce, with what conspicuous results the present splendid industrial prosperity of the German people abundantly testifies."

The report contains some interesting information, but it would reflect greater credit upon the department if the instruction had been more definite and if there had been some indication as to who desired the information called for and the practical purposes which the reports would be expected to serve.

Social Reform in New York.—The citizens of the State of New York who are interested in legislation on social and charitable subjects will find their work for the present winter chiefly in watching the course of the legislature in reference to certain recommendations made by the new governor, in the discussion of the report of the charter revision commission and in the consideration of the report of the tenement house commission.

In his message to the legislature Governor Odell proposed the virtual abolition of the state board of charities and the substitution of a single salaried commissioner. In deference to a constitutional provision that there must be a state board of charities, the governor suggested that there should be associated with the commissioner two other state officials, to be designated by the governor from a list to be enumerated in the new statute reorganizing the board. A similar change was proposed for the prison commission, and it was recommended that the bureau of labor statistics, the board of mediation and arbitration and the department of factory inspection be consolidated in the new department of labor. All these, with other changes,

were recommended in the interests of economy. The Consumers' League has made a vigorous protest against the recommendation in regard to the department of labor and especially against the accompanying recommendation of a reduction in the number of inspectors. The function of the department of factory inspection of the State of New York is a matter of national importance because the products of the garment workshops of this state (for the wholesome condition of which the department is responsible) are sold in every state and territory in the United States.

From the nature of the work to be done, the duties of the factory inspectors and the bureau of labor statistics actively conflict, because the gatherers of statistics of wages must have access to the books of employing firms and must have interviews with the employers on an entirely different basis from that of the factory inspectors, whose sole function should be to enforce upon all parties obedience to the laws of the state. It is essential to the efficiency of the work that the factory inspectors be kept entirely independent of all other departments of the government, because, they, themselves, form an executive branch of the government, charged with the duty of prosecuting violators of the law.

In the opinion of the Consumers' League of the City of New York, the economy which the present situation demands in relation to the department of factory inspection consists in raising it to the highest efficiency; by giving it thoroughly able and efficient persons in the positions of chief inspector, assistant inspector and licensing inspector; an adequate staff of deputy inspectors and sufficient funds wherewith to perform its extremely important and far-reaching duties.

An even more emphatic protest is made by the charitable societies against the proposition to reorganize the state board of charities. A statement prepared on behalf of several of the leading societies of New York City points out that there is no economy in the proposed plan; that the measure would destroy the non-political character of the board and would tend to introduce partisan politics into the management of the public and semi-public institutions of the city; that the present system has protected these institutions from the influence of partisan politics for the reason that the present board is slowly changing and practically unpaid; that the present system has resulted in important economies, in the construction and management of state and local institutions (at least a million dollars has been saved by the operation of the rules of the state board of charities in regard to dependent children); and that the composition of the board as proposed is vicious. The single commissioner, who might be an expert, could be out-voted by the two other members of the board who were

elected to devote their time and energies to other matters. The experience of other states with small paid boards has indicated that a board consisting of several members serving without compensation or with small compensation is safest and most useful. Such are the boards existing under slightly varying designation in Massachusetts, Connecticut, Pennsylvania, Maryland, Ohio, Illinois, Indiana, Michigan, Minnesota and other states. The principal point raised in the statement issued by the societies is that the board should remain a deliberative body. The powers of the board regarding the reception and retention of children as public charges in charitable and reformatory institutions inevitably influence the religious and moral training which such children are to receive, and determine to some extent the character of the entire environment of the helpless wards of the state. At what age children are to cease to be public charges, under what conditions they may be transferred from one institution to another, under what conditions they may be placed out in foster homes, whether suitable hygienic and physical conditions are present, and numerous other similarly vital considerations are partly subject to regulation by the board and partly determined by statutes for the execution of which the state board of charities is in large part responsible. Under the present form of organization no change in the rules or methods of the board can be made except after discussion by members who represent diverse views and diverse interests.

The chapter relating to the Department of Public Charities in the bill embodying the recommendations of the Charter Revision Commission is excellent. It provides for a single commissioner for the entire department, instead of three commissioners with distinct territorial jurisdiction, as at present; for a children's court and for the separation of the principal public hospitals from the charities department and the creation of a department of public hospitals. Concerning the last of these three propositions expert opinion is divided. The plan recommended by the commission is for an unpaid board of seven members, of whom one is to retire each year. Under this board there would be a salaried director with large administrative powers. There are numerous minor changes for the better in the charities chapter and in the chapter relating to the department of correction. The commission recommends the complete reorganization of the police department, but it is probable that the legislature will have passed a separate act for the government of this department before much attention is given to the report of the commission as a whole.

The Death Penalty as a Preventive of Crime.—In at least six states there has been recent active discussion of the death penalty for murder. In Kansas and Colorado it is proposed to introduce capital

punishment. In these two states atrocious lynchings have given the opportunity to believers in capital punishment to say that if the law had been operative the lynchings would not have occurred. In Massachusetts and New York, on the other hand, there is a movement, which in Massachusetts at least has strong backing, to abolish the death penalty. The governor of Kansas is reported to have said that the lynching in that state will almost certainly result in a return to capital punishment. The attorney-general of Massachusetts insists that the punishment of murder by death does not tend to prevent or diminish that crime, and that the infliction of the death penalty is not in accord with present civilization; that it is a relic of barbarism which the community must certainly outgrow, as it has already outgrown the rack, the whipping-post and the stake. In Wisconsin a bill has been introduced providing capital punishment for certain degrees of homicide. In Maine also, where capital punishment was abolished in 1887, there is pending a bill to re-establish it. The state librarian has published a leaflet detailing the experience of the state on the subject. The salient points of this history are reproduced as likely to be of peculiar interest in view of the present widespread discussion.

In 1820 the crimes of treason, murder, arson, rape, burglary and robbery from the person by violence, were punishable with death by hanging. In 1829 the penalty for burglary, rape and robbery was reduced to imprisonment for life. In 1837 the law was further modified so that one convicted of murder and sentenced to be hanged, should be confined in the state prison a year and a day, before execution, and until a full record of the proceedings had been submitted to the executive, and until such time as the executive should issue his warrant ordering the execution.

In 1844 the law was further modified, requiring that all persons under sentence of death, should suffer solitary confinement and hard labor in the state prison, until such sentence was carried into effect.

It will be seen that by the law of 1837, the execution of the death penalty was, in a measure, left to the discretion of the executive, since there was no limit of time within which he was, by law, compelled to issue his warrant of execution. The responsibility thus created was so great and the sentiment against the death penalty so active and aggressive, that there was no execution in this state for nearly thirty years.

In 1867, the governor called the attention of the legislature to the fact that there were ten persons under sentence of death, confined in the state prison, one of whom had been there over twenty years. He suggested that the penalty be abolished, or the law so changed as to require the governor to issue his warrant of execution within a time

certain and fixed. In 1869 a law was enacted requiring the governor and council to review the finding of the court in cases of conviction and sentence of death, and commute, pardon or cause the prisoner to be executed within a certain length of time after the date of the original sentence.

In 1870, and again in 1874, the governor entered his protest against the law of 1869, declaring his belief that it was unconstitutional, since it imposed juridical functions upon the executive department.

In 1875 the legislature amended the law of 1869, so that the governor was required to issue a warrant of execution within fifteen months of the date of sentence. In 1876 the death penalty was abolished altogether. In 1883 the death penalty for murder alone was re-established. In 1885 the governor, referring to the death penalty, remarked that there had been an unusual number of cold-blooded murders within the state during the two years last passed, and that the change in the law relating to murder had not afforded the protection anticipated. In 1887 the death penalty was again abolished.

The strong minority opposed to the death penalty had much to do with its non-enforcement from 1837 to 1857, and the enforcement of the law from the latter date until 1876 had more to do with its abolition ; since the executions during this period awakened discussion and debate upon the subject, and brought the people face to face with their responsibility and duty in the matter. Professor Upham, of Bowdoin College, and Rev. Sylvester Judd, of Augusta, Me., by their speeches and written arguments against capital punishment, created a deep-seated and widespread sentiment in the minds of the people against this mode of punishment. The Society of Friends within the state were ever urging in their petitions to the legislature for the abolition of the death penalty. The sentiment of the people is now so strongly against capital punishment that it is predicted that the law will never again be enacted in Maine.

On the general question as to whether the abolition of the death sentence would lead to lynching, it is possible to secure evidence. The question is whether the abolition of capital punishment in Maine, Wisconsin and Michigan, in Switzerland, in Italy and in Russia has stimulated lynching. The negative answer is very positive. It can even be shown that the number of murders has not increased. On the contrary, in most countries where capital punishment has been abolished it has decreased. There is another pertinent question, viz.: What relation does the number of indictments for murder bear to the number of convictions for murder in countries where the death penalty exists, and in countries where the death penalty does not exist? It would be difficult to obtain accurate statistics on this subject, but the

advocates of the abolition of the death penalty claim that in the southern states where the death penalty is in force there is vastly more lynching so far as colored criminals are concerned, and that in the case of white murderers there is less chance of conviction than in countries and states in which the death penalty is abolished. It may readily be claimed that one reason for the recent rapid conviction of four criminals in Paterson, N. J., is that the jury under the law could agree on a verdict for murder in the second degree, involving imprisonment only, when they could not agree on a conviction for murder in the first degree, involving a death sentence.

The governor of Indiana, in his annual message, suggested that kidnapping, like murder, should be punished by the death penalty.

Convict Labor.—The system of leasing out convicts to private parties, which has been in force in Louisiana for thirty years, came to an end on the first of the year, anticipating the provisions of the constitution of 1898, which prohibited the leasing of convicts after the expiration of the existing lease in March of the present year. The problem of selecting the right kind of labor for the convicts has been a puzzling one to the board of control of the state penitentiary, but selection has been made of a sugar plantation in one locality and a cotton plantation in another. Both properties are said to be well equipped with the necessary machinery to cultivate and handle the crops. The young able-bodied colored convicts however are to be employed in building levees under state care, while some of the white convicts and the more intelligent negroes are to remain in the penitentiary proper, employed in industries to be created. Several other southern states, where the mild climate permits of outdoor work nearly the whole year, are trying the effect of convict labor on the state farms.

Successful experiments have been made in Oneida County, N. Y., in employing convicts in road-making. It is held that road-building competes less with free labor than most other occupations. Good roads are needed and there is small prospect of free labor building enough of them. In Monroe County men have been employed in raising large crops of oats, potatoes, cabbages and onions. The diversification of the industries of convicts is to be commended, especially in the direction of those occupations which are physically and morally healthful.

The experiment has attracted much interest and the subject has been taken up actively in the legislatures of several other states. The warden of Kings County Penitentiary, Brooklyn, has proposed a plan by which the convict labor of the entire state so far as necessary be utilized in constructing a great state highway from New York City to Buffalo.

The "Charities Review."—The "Charities Review," of which Mr. Herbert S. Brown has been editor, has been incorporated with "Charities," the weekly periodical published by the New York Charity Organization Society, and will henceforth appear as a monthly number of that periodical.

The "Review" has completed the fourth of its historical studies in American Philanthropy of the Nineteenth Century. Those which have thus far appeared are: "Children, Destitute, Neglected and Delinquent," by Homer Folks; "Care and Relief of the Poor in their Homes," by Edward T. Devine; "Hospitals, Dispensaries and Nursing," by Henry M. Hurd; "Institutional Care of Destitute Adults," by Robert W. Hebbard. "The History of Preventive Work," by Joseph Lee, is still in progress and will be continued in the monthly "Charities Review" number of "Charities."

Prevention of Fires in Institutions.—The "Charities Review" for February contains some trenchant paragraphs on the subject of the failure to take proper precautions against fires in charitable institutions:

"It is nearly a year since we last had occasion to note any specially disastrous institution fires. The season of overheated flues has returned, however, and the story begins once more. It is hardly worth while to try to locate specifically the responsibility for the fire at the Rochester orphan asylum by which some thirty of the inmates have met their death. Of course, the building was inflammable; of course, there was no night watchman; of course, there was not any very good way of getting out in a hurry: these things cost money, and charitable institutions must economize. In possibly five hundred other institutions in this country the conditions which made the Rochester disaster are duplicated. No one thinks of accusing the management of any of these institutions of criminal negligence. On the contrary, they are felt to be showing a commendable spirit of thrift in getting along with the least possible drain on their contributors. For instance, the managers of the Buffalo orphan asylum, with perhaps one hundred and fifty inmates in an old building of wood and brick of the rapid-burning type, with wooden staircases, supplemented by two narrow iron ladders, with no night watchman, and with no fire-drill, are said to be patiently plodding along in the hope of a new fireproof building some day; in the meantime 'doing the best they can with the money which charitable people have given them to work with.' The Rochester society happened to get caught, the Buffalo institution to escape. The conditions were identical and the responsibility is identical. . . .

"But economy is not the only factor in evidence in our annual list of fire fatalities. Inexcusable indifference on the part of managers,

coupled with inexcusable indolence on the part of superintendents, brings about a condition of affairs such as is reported in a statement before us, presumably correct, regarding a fire in the insane annex of a county almshouse in Ohio. Here, it is stated, the discovery of the fire so demoralized the attendants that the keys to the 'cells' were lost and doors had to be broken open. One old man could not get out. Aside from the fact that if Ohio legislators had a keener eye for lasting economy there would have been no insane 'cells' in this almshouse, it is perfectly evident that the superintendent of this particular institution had not seriously considered what he and his helpers would do in case fire broke out.

"It is just at this point that the value of a state supervisory board comes in. So long as the local overseers are the final arbiters in all matters relating to the almshouse, so long will there be found some institutions run with complete indifference to the welfare of inmates; some with a robust kind of care which means well, but which knows little; none with the complete equipment of experience which an inspecting and advising board carries from one institution to another and from other states to its own. Who is to suggest to the isolated county superintendent the utility of a fire-drill if not the state board? . . .

"State boards of charity are not yet very strongly established in the American body politic, and their power, even when statutory or constitutional, has yet to be enforced with the utmost mildness and indulgence, lest they lose what hold they have. Scarcely a legislative season passes in which an effort is not made in several states to overthrow or cripple these boards, either to satisfy the spoilsman or to wreak vengeance for some 'interference' on the part of the board for better conditions in institutions.

"The evidence is so completely against the decentralization of administration in charity,—at least of supervision of charity,—that one is compelled to admit that the successful introduction of a central supervising board of charity is for any state a distinct step toward both economy and humanity. On the other hand, any effort to cripple such a board, even on the ground that it does its appointed work unsatisfactorily, must be made facing the only alternative to these boards that history has yet given,—indifference to the welfare of public wards, varying from simple neglect to mediæval inhumanity; economy, if any at all, that stints the beans of to-day while it breeds the beggars of to-morrow; discipline that restrains and rebuffs the hungry and sick, but keeps open house to the calloused vagabond; education for the child with almshouse for kindergarten, workhouse for intermediate, and jail, hospital, or asylum for the finishing touches."

The "Review" proceeds to give an account of the rescue of the charitable institutions of the State of Indiana from the political spoilsmen, a reform which has required over ten years for its accomplishment, and which is full of significance to the states which have not yet reached the same plane and those other states which, having reached it are in danger of retrogression.

Annual Reports of Charity Organization Societies in New York and Massachusetts.—The New York charity organization society publishes a report which gives evidence of condensation and even omission in order to bring within reasonable compass a review of its diversified activities. Tenement-house reform is placed foremost.

The report contains, however, a general survey of charitable legislation in the state and of charitable administration in the city of New York, giving special attention to the reform instituted by the society two years ago in preventing the breaking up of families and the commitment of children to institutions, when this can be done by providing assistance privately at home. It is reported that in some instances parents are so anxious to keep their children that the task is easy, even though the amount of money required is considerable. The gratitude shown for the assistance through which it becomes possible to avoid the dreaded separation and the stigma of becoming a charge upon the public treasury, is ample reward for all those who have had a share in the undertaking. In other instances, a large amount of work besides the supply of relief has been necessary. For example, in one case the agent of the society induced an employer to lend money to get the family out of furnished rooms, secured the discharge of children from an institution in Brooklyn, arranged for the admission of the woman into a maternity hospital, later brought about the arrest and imprisonment of the husband, persuading the wife to appear against him in court, and relatives to shelter the woman and children for a short period, secured a suspension of sentence and parole for the man, and by visiting the former employer secured his return to his former position, and obtained an excellent friendly visitor for the family. In a word, the breaking up of the family, repeatedly threatened, was averted, there having been every reason to believe that the man contemplated desertion after the children were committed. The greatest difficulty arose in the not infrequent cases in which the head of the family deserts the wife and children in order to secure the commitment of the latter.

One of the causes of the large number of applications from certain elements of the foreign population is a current misconception of the status of inmates of institutions. A Syrian priest, for example, has remarked that there is a strong prejudice among Syrians in favor of

the "school," and all who are familiar with the magistrates' courts or with the department of charities know of the prevalent notion among Italians that their children are being "sent to college." It does not appear that there is any difference, in the minds of many people, between attendance in the public school and entire maintenance in an institution where an education would be obtained and perhaps a trade learned at the expense of the city. One family living in affluence in an expensive apartment was very much astonished when an examiner from the department of charities suggested that the expenses of the education of the children should be met by the parents. In another instance one of the managers of an institution indignantly demanded whether the agent of the charity organization society wished to make paupers of the family. What the agent had proposed was that the mother should be helped privately to keep her children instead of having the city pay for them in the institution. It is a curiously distorted view that would make a pauper of a family which is helped privately at home, but does not recognize as a pauper one whose children are a public charge.

Another still more striking instance is that of a West Indian negro who is quite capable of supporting his family, but who left them to their own resources, with the result that at least one of the children has been committed as a public charge. The father, whose whereabouts were unknown for a time, has been located as a student in a university in a neighboring state, the president of which writes concerning this student: "He is in our sophomore class. He is diligent and successful in his studies. We regard him as a very reliable and promising man. He appears to be under the control of good principles, and we are glad to cherish toward him a growing confidence."

The Buffalo charity organization society, in its annual report, concentrates attention upon the constructive work of its district committees, pointing out that for some time this has been comparatively neglected as compared with the attention given to incidental and later features.

A recent great extension of the church district plan makes it cover very nearly the whole city. This is one of the most interesting experiments now in progress in the field of organized charity. The plan itself was described in the "Charities Review" for March and May, 1898. The report of last year confessed a partial failure due to the unwillingness of the district committees to refer their families to the churches which on the invitation of the society have accepted the responsibility for particular districts. A rule was adopted in November, 1899, abolishing the discretion of the district committees, and requiring the reference of all families residing within the assigned districts.

This completed the conditions essential to the thorough trial of the plan, nearly the whole city having been satisfactorily assigned. We are not yet, however, assured that the plan is a success. The most that its immediate advocates claim is that it is succeeding. Perhaps, however, this is a commendable example of moderation in claims. That it has been in operation for five years, and that it has not been abandoned or undermined, but rather has been strengthened and extended, is much in its favor. Many "movements" which are heralded as revolutionary in character can claim less. The present report says that in the past year twenty new districts have been taken, making the total number over one hundred, and that in almost every denomination all the churches of importance now participate in this plan. On confident days it seems as if through this organized attack in another generation bestial poverty would be fairly driven from the field, but at present the difficulties of the church district plan are conspicuous. It is not popular with the agents of the society, not so much because it involves infinite detail and because a reference to a church often doubles their labor instead of lessening it, but because they see so often that it means delay and suffering to the poor. The district committees also hesitate to surrender a family in need to the weakness, dilatoriness, or apathy of some churches. A few notes by the agent of one of the district committees illustrate this. In reading them it should be borne in mind that urgent need is relieved at once by the society, with no delay whatever, before the family is referred. "Agent called twice and wrote once for reports. One month after being referred was told by church visitor that she intended to call." "Agent has called and written for reports. Visitors, all young girls. I have no knowledge of families having been visited." "In each case visits were made one month after being referred." "Reports have been repeatedly promised by pastor. So far as agent knows, families have not been visited." "Pastor of this church says he understands the needs and work of the district better than anyone else. Charity organization society plan amounts to nothing. No time for reports." It is but fair to add that these could be fully matched by as many notes by the same agent, of wise, prompt care and good visitors.

The conclusion of the matter, in the words of the report, is: Unwise charity is as formidable under this plan as neglect or delay, but unwise charity has existed, is existing, and will exist, unless educated. The test of success of a charity organization society is its power to influence the charitable work of its community. What has been done is so much less than it might be that it often seems less than it is. A century ago it would have been Utopian to conceive of one hundred churches in a city, Catholic, Protestant, and Hebrew,

banded together for a common purpose, and relieving each others' poor.

The report of the New York association for improving the condition of the poor contains interesting statistical data and an account, necessarily condensed, of the various activities of the association: the relief department, fresh-air work, people's baths, Hartley house settlement, Cooper Union labor bureau (recently discontinued), and the committee for boarding infants from the hospital on Randall's Island (conducted jointly with the State Charities Aid Association).

The reasons assigned for closing the labor bureau are given as follows: (1) Improvement of business conditions in the city, lessening the number of the unemployed. While there are still many men out of work, the number is much smaller than when this work was begun. (2) The announcement by some of the intelligence offices that employers can secure help from them without charge. (3) Free labor advertisements published in a daily paper of large circulation. (4) The establishment of a free labor bureau by the state; also by other philanthropic agencies. One of the objects which the committee has had in view from the first has been the fostering of enterprises that could take up the work and carry it on successfully. (5) The growing belief that the state is able to conduct a free employment office better than a philanthropic society can, because of its wider sphere of influence, its ability to ascertain the needs of different sections of the state, and also its power to secure legislation tending to decrease the evils of the average intelligence office. Important steps in this latter direction have already been taken, much-needed laws having been secured since the state bureau was opened. (6) Lack of adequate support to compete with agencies which have an expensive office force, employ canvassers, and insert advertisements calling attention to their work and their available applicants.

What is an associated charities for? The Boston society of that name answers this inquiry in its annual report in a way which will answer equally for a charity organization society or a bureau of associated charities.

According to the directory of charitable and beneficent organizations published by us in 1899, there are in the city some 250 relieving societies, hospitals, and homes, besides many semi-charitable agencies. How is a person in need of help to know where he should apply; at which of these many doors he should knock?

More often than not the poor person who comes to others for help is lacking in judgment and foresight. When an extra trouble falls upon him he is bewildered, and turns to the nearest means of assistance, however unsuitable or inadequate and far too often passes by in

his ignorance the remedy of which he is in need. The best thing for him may be hospital care, or a convalescent home or a temporary home for his children, while the mother is in a hospital, or a loan on moderate terms so as to start again in business, or to place his boy at an industrial school or on a farm under the care of a children's society, or to move his family to the country where work is to be had,—or several of these remedies together. Sometimes he knows what the right thing is, although not how to get it ; but more generally he does not know what he requires, and asks for something quite different. Above all, however, he needs an intelligent and interested adviser and friend, who will put him in the way of getting the right assistance ; and here comes the opportunity of the associated charities.

Scattered over the city are sixteen district offices. At each is to be found every day, at certain hours, a devoted agent of the society, a person of sympathy, intelligence, painstaking care, infinite patience, and good-will ; and who, having knowledge of the manifold possibilities of the city, can obtain the immediate relief by food or fuel, which may be necessary, while plans are being made for the longer future and against the recurrence of distress. Each new agent is trained by a hard course of work and study under experts for her office of " friend in deed." Behind this paid worker, who visits, investigates, reports, and relieves all pressing suffering at once, is a conference, a body of volunteer visitors, who meet once a week to discuss the cases brought to them, and to plan the right means of helping, whether for a few days or for long years. These volunteers, the actively interested friends of the people in the district, feel the need of counsel and deliberation that they may pursue wisely their work of guiding the lives of those who confess their inability to care for themselves. Not only do these friends meet in full conference weekly, but daily also in small groups, so constant are the calls for advice from every side.

To bind together the different groups of helpers, there is the central office, or bureau of exchanges, where the histories of distressed families are kept privately, where information passes continually and confidentially from the different relief societies and individuals to us and to each other. At this office, meetings of the directors are held constantly, and the general plans and principles of the society are worked out. Here the agents meet in council, the secretary conducts classes in the study of charity, and here the work of the whole is unified and directed.

National Conference (1900) of Charities and Correction.—The proceedings of the Twenty-seventh National Conference of Charities and Correction held at Topeka, May 18 to 24, 1900, have just been published. The " reports from states " in the present volume include

reports from Canada, Mexico and Cuba, as well as from nearly all the states of the union.

There is an increasing tendency toward intensive conferences in the field of charities and correction. While the National Conference, the Prison Congress, the Social Science Association and the American Association for the Advancement of Science have a useful and important function, there is also a recognized need for meetings in which questions of local interest may be discussed more intelligently and exhaustively than is possible in the national gatherings. The first state conference has been held this winter in New York, California, Kansas, Missouri, and a movement to inaugurate a conference in Kentucky is started. The bill to create a state board of charities has received an impetus from the conference at Oakland, Cal. The fifth annual state conference was held this year in Illinois, the ninth in Indiana, and the nineteenth in Michigan. In New York, Pennsylvania and other states, there have long been conventions of superintendents of the poor and other public officials, but the newer conferences differ from these conventions in the greater participation of representatives of private charities and of private citizens interested in the charitable work.

The Prevention of the Spread of Consumption.—The crusade against consumption gains headway, but as yet it shows no adequate conception of its enormous task.

The United States Commissioner of Immigration has decided that it is a disease which may subject the patient to quarantine. The state board of health, of Illinois, recommends the building of a state sanitarium. A hospital for incipient cases is advocated in the Legislature of Connecticut. The medical societies have inaugurated a similar movement in Minnesota and California. The New York Legislature threatens to discredit its own commission, appointed a year ago by passing a law compelling the commission to select an entirely unsuitable site for its hospital for incipient cases. Sing Sing prison has been condemned by the prison association of New York and by the state board of health, for the reason among others that to send a convict to that prison is to sentence him to infection from this disease and to unsanitary conditions, which make recovery from it virtually impossible.

A report of the United States marine hospital service, last summer, contained a comparative statement of the mortality from yellow fever and consumption in Havana in the five years, from 1890 to 1894 inclusive. From this it appears that the total deaths from yellow fever were 1,117, the highest number being 398 in 1893. From consumption the total number of deaths was 7,462, and the variations

from year to year were much less than in the case of yellow fever. In other words, in a city where yellow fever was believed to be most prevalent and fatal, it killed only one person, where consumption killed seven.

It is an encouraging sign that not only medical societies, but also charitable conferences in all parts of the world are earnestly discussing the subject. The demonstration is complete that the disease is contagious, and in its earlier stages curable. The two federal government hospitals in New Mexico already report remarkable success in the treatment of army and navy patients.

Halting as state action has been, in the matter of appropriations for hospitals for curable cases, houses of rest for advanced cases, colonies for those who can remain nearly self-supporting, and laboratories for the advancement of medical knowledge, even less adequately has private philanthropy solved its share of the joint problem.

In Philadelphia there was organized in 1895 the Free Hospital Society for Poor Consumptives, which is the logical outgrowth of the Pennsylvania Society for the Prevention of Tuberculosis, which has been the model on which similar societies have been organized in other parts of this country and in Europe. The Free Hospital Society has paid board for patients in city hospitals, and when there has been a chance for cure it has sent the patient to a sanitarium in the Adirondacks. Its work has steadily grown, and in December it was supporting forty-five patients at an outlay of \$1,000 a month.

The money for this purpose has been raised in small sums from the charitably disposed. This system of maintaining patients in existing hospitals has not been regarded as entirely satisfactory, but it was the best possible under the circumstances. The ultimate aim has been to have a properly equipped city hospital for advanced cases and a sanitarium in the mountains for those who are in the early stages. Dr. Lawrence F. Flick, as president of the Free Hospital Society, issued a special Christmas appeal for funds for the new enterprise.

In New York the Indigent Consumptives' Aid Association has been created "for the purpose of illustrating the ultimate method of treatment and the most effective way of curing the disease." The colonization idea underlying this society differs from the hospital plan in that it will not only remove the patient to the climate most suitable to his condition, but also transplant the associations of his former life by providing a place of abode for all or part of his family, and by providing also suitable occupation. This movement, like that in Pennsylvania, is initiated by physicians. Dr. J. Austin Kelly, of Brooklyn, is president of the society.

The Stony Wolde Sanitarium, to be established in the Adirondacks,

on the cottage plan, is intended for working women and girls, both free patients and those who are able to pay something toward their maintenance and treatment.

What is needed most of all at the present time is a realization of the urgency and enormous extent of the struggle upon which official and private agencies are entering. The impressive words of Dr. George F. Keene before the Cincinnati Conference of Charities and Correction in 1889 need frequent reiteration: "Consumption is a disease which has claimed more victims than all the wars and all the plagues and scourges of the human race. Even in the few short years since Koch's discovery, over 2,000,000 persons on this continent have succumbed to the fatal infection. In the last two decades in Cincinnati out of a total mortality of 119,089 there have been 17,353 deaths from this dread disease. The annual tribute of the United States to this scourge is over 100,000 of its inhabitants. Each year the world yields up 1,095,000; each day 3,000; each minute two of its people as a sacrifice to this plague. Of the 70,000,000 individuals now peopling these United States, 10,000,000 must inevitably die of this disease if the present ratio is kept up."

Dr. S. A. Knopf, author of a useful work on "The Prophylaxis and Cure of Consumption," addressing a recent meeting in the interests of the Stony Wolde Sanitarium, said:

"To expect that the state or city alone shall cope with the tuberculosis problem is unreasonable. The one state sanitarium, which we hope to have in our Empire State ere long, even could it accommodate a thousand patients, would only be like 'a drop of relief in an ocean of woe.' I fervently hope that the state will never have a sanitarium of that size, and I know that those who counsel our state authorities in this matter will never permit so large an aggregation of consumptives in one place. What is needed is multiple sanatoria and special hospitals of moderate size, located near the large centres of population. Our own state and city will have to have several of these, and private philanthropy will create more. There must be institutions which receive men, women and children suffering from tuberculosis, not only for the very poor classes, but also for people of moderate means. There are many people among consumptives who are too proud to enter an entirely free institution; they are willing and able to pay something, and do not wish to feel that they are objects of charity. The sanatoria situated at a greater distance from the city should receive, as far as practicable, the incipient and more hopeful cases. The special hospitals situated in the outskirts of the city should be for the purpose of isolation as much as for treatment."

A more complete program for immediate action to check the scourge

would include: (1) improved housing; (2) isolation of advanced cases to prevent infection; (3) treatment of incipient cases under favorable climatic and other conditions; (4) propaganda concerning the proper methods of preventing infection; (5) general inculcation of the facts that consumption is contagious and curable; (6) charitable assistance when necessary to enable those who are afflicted to cease work temporarily and remove to a place where there is a chance of speedy recovery; (7) scientific investigation of the sources of infection, and determination of the precise extent to which isolation is advisable.